

THE ASIAN DRIVERS AND SSA: MFA QUOTA REMOVAL AND THE PORTENTS FOR AFRICAN INDUSTRIALISATION?

Raphael Kaplinsky

Institute for Development Studies, University of Sussex and Centre for Research in
Innovation Management, University of Brighton, U.K.

Mike Morris

Policy Research on International Services and Manufacturing, SALDRU,
School of Economics, University of Cape Town

April 2006

An earlier version of this paper was presented to a workshop on Asian and other Drivers of Change in St. Petersburg on the 18-19th January 2006. We are grateful to the participants at this workshop for their constructive comments, to Masuma Farooki, Jeff Readman and Leanne Sedowski in the preparation of this paper, and to DFID for funding the filed research. Unfortunately, we hold sole responsibility for any errors and omissions.

1. INTRODUCTION

Most debates around the industrialisation possibilities for developing countries kick off on the impact of globalisation. Increasing globalisation (in the sense of trade liberalisation and opening up of markets) is either deemed to be beneficial to developing country economies or detrimental to them. Usually the impact of globalisation is discussed in terms of the integration of developing country markets into those of the industrialised centres of the global economy – i.e. North America, European Union, and Japan. Consequently the discussion hinges around the question of who benefits from opening up developing country markets to these Triad economies (and vice versa).

However there are two problems with the way these discussions are framed. Firstly, they tend to assume a dichotomous world of ‘north’ (meaning industrialised) versus ‘south’ (meaning developing). But this ignores the globalising impact of other rapidly industrialising economies in the South – principally China (including its supply chain hinterland in South East Asia) and India, both of which we term the Asian Drivers – on the rest of the developing world (Kaplinsky 2005). Secondly, the discussion operates on the assumption that the impacts of globalisation are either positive or negative. In other words, there is an implicit assumption of a uni-dimensional world with uni-dimensional impacts.

Our analysis proceeds from radically different assumptions. This paper attempts to take up both of these issues by viewing globalisation as consisting of multi-dimensional relationships between economies in both the developing and the developed worlds. The prism through which we view these relationships is the impact of the Asian Drivers on the most troubled area of the developing world, sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), in terms of their triangular relationship to the industrialised economies. Secondly the paper does this through an approach which assumes a multi-dimensionality of impacts and global relationships.

In assessing the impact of the Asian Drivers (or indeed any single economy) on SSA (or indeed any other region or economy) it is important to distinguish between two *dimensions of effects*. The first of these is the competitive-complementary dimension. Is there a synergistic fit between the trading economies with win-win elements predominating, or is their relationship one of competition, a win-lose outcome? The second and more complex dimension is that between direct and indirect effects. Direct effects are easy to assess, arising from the bilateral relationship between the two economies, for example direct trade links between the Asian Drivers and other economies. Indirect impacts are more complex to assess, arising in third-country economies, for example the impact which the Asian Drivers have on prices and market shares in third-country markets.

A second classificatory taxonomy is that distinguishing different *vectors of impacts*. Here we can identify the following major channels – through trade links, through flows of finance, through links in production (including via FDI), in institutions of governance, and through migration.

Figure 1 provides a taxonomical overview of these different dimensions and vectors of impacts, and helps to situate our analysis of the portents for African industrialisation arising from the global expansion of Asian Driver economies in general, and China in

particular. In this paper we restrict ourselves to a limited terrain - the trade and production vector – through a case-study of SSA’s clothing and textiles sector. In the Conclusion we assess which of these effects have the largest amplitude.

Figure 1: A taxonomical overview of dimensions and vectors of Asian Driver impacts on other regions and economies ^a

		Direct	Indirect
Trade	Complementary		
	Competitive		
Production and FDI	Complementary	Direct	Indirect
	Competitive		
Finance	Complementary	Direct	Indirect
	Competitive		
Governance	Complementary	Direct	Indirect
	Competitive		
Migration	Complementary	Direct	Indirect
	Competitive		

^a These dimensions and vectors are drawn from IDS (2006).

The paper is organised in the following way. Section 2 is focused on the clothing and textiles sector. The reasons for this choice are obvious. First, it is the largest sector of SSA manufacturing exports, a major beneficiary of the US AGOA programme, hence encompassing the north-south dimension. And, second, the quotas which were the significant determinant of global production patterns were removed at the close of December 2004 with the ending of the Multi Fibre Arrangement. Quota removal was widely believed to favour China and other Asian producers at the cost of other low-wage economies in general, and SSA in particular, hence closing the triangular relationship by encompassing the south-south dimension. Section 3 considers the wider impact of this sectoral case-study and assesses the implications for future industrial growth in SSA.

2. MFA, QUOTA REMOVAL AND SSA’S CLOTHING AND TEXTILES SECTOR

In 2004, a US International Trade Commission enquiry into competitiveness in the global textiles and clothing industry provided a comprehensive overview of emerging trends based in part on a series of country case-studies conducted by industry experts. It concluded that China is “expected to become the ‘supplier of choice’ for most U.S. importers (the large apparel companies and retailers) because of its ability to make almost any type of textile and apparel product at any quality level at a competitive price”. The ITC concluded that China’s low unit labour costs were due to a combination of low wages and high productivity. As for quality, it is “considered by industry [to be] among the best in making most garments and made-up textile articles at any quality or price level”. (USITC, 2004: x1 and xiii). Lead times, too, were relatively low.

If accurate, this will represent a major challenge for SSA clothing and textile exporters. One indicator of the sector’s regional importance is that although clothing and textiles exports declined between 2003 (the peak year) and 2004, they still accounted for 4.7

percent of total SSA merchandise exports, and 18.7 percent of total SSA manufactured exports in 2004 (WTO, 2005). (Most of these exports, 4.1 percent and 16.4 percent respectively, were clothing). SSA clothing and textile exports are heavily concentrated in a few economies (see below), and in some of these, their strategic significance is very important, with major implications for growth and poverty reduction. For example, in Lesotho, clothing and textiles accounted for 99 percent of exports and 50 percent of GDP in 2002, and in Kenya in 2003, employment in export processing zone export-orienting clothing enterprises accounted for the equivalent of nearly 20 percent of all formal sector manufacturing employment outside of the EPZs (Kaplinsky, 2004).

2.1. The global clothing and textiles sector

China is substantially the world's largest clothing exporter, increasing the value of its clothing exports by 540 percent from \$9.7 billion in 1990 to \$62.0 billion in 2004 (Table 1). In 1990, China accounted for only nine percent of the world's total clothing exports, but by 2004, its share had increased to 24 percent, and if Hong Kong with 10 percent of the world total is included, China effectively accounted for one third of world clothing exports. China is also the world's largest exporter of textiles products, with 17 percent of global textile exports. Its textiles exports increased from \$7.2 billion in 1990 to \$33.4 billion in 2004 (362 percent), while its share of the world total more than doubled. Hong Kong and Italy each accounted for approximately eight percent of total textile exports, exporting \$14.2 billion and \$15.3 billion respectively in 2004. China holds the greatest share of US imports (17 percent), with imports more than doubling since 1997 to reach \$10,997 billion in 2003 (Morris et al 2006 forthcoming).

SSA is only a small participant on this global stage. Its share of global textile exports was only 2.6 percent in 2004, and 3.7 percent for clothing (WTO, 2005). Most of these clothing and textile exports are destined for the USA and here in order of importance, the largest SSA clothing and textile exporters are Lesotho, Madagascar, Kenya, Mauritius, Swaziland and South Africa.

Table 1: World trade in clothing by top 10 countries (US\$ million)

Exports Clothing										1990-2004 % change	% world total	
Country	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004		1990	2004
China	1,625	2,450	9,669	24,049	36,071	36,650	41,302	52,061	61,856	540%	9%	24%
Hong Kong	4,976	6,718	15,406	21,297	24,214	23,446	22,343	23,152	25,097	63%	14%	10%
Italy	4,584	5,320	11,839	14,424	13,384	14,220	14,643	16,191	17,925	51%	11%	7%
Germany	2,882		7,882	7,530	7,320	7,444	8,338	9,749	11,221	42%	7%	4%
Turkey	131	1,208	3,331	6,119	6,533	6,661	8,057	9,937	11,193	236%	3%	4%
France	2,294	1,935	4,671	5,659	5,414	5,469	5,882	6,935	7,865	68%	4%	3%
Mexico	2		587	2,731	8,631	8,012	7,751	7,343	7,197	1126%	1%	3%
India	673	930	2,530	4,110	6,179	5,484	6,037	6,459	6,620	162%	2%	3%
Belgium					3,941	4,206	4,649	5,353	6,235		0%	2%
United States	1,263	785	2,565	6,651	8,629	7,012	6,032	5,537	5,059	97%	2%	2%
World	40,590		108,129	158,353	197,498	194,490	202,310	225,940	258,097	139%	100%	100%
Imports Clothing												
United States	6,943	16,202	26,977	41,367	67,115	66,391	66,731	71,277	75,731	181%	24%	28%
Germany	8,326		20,411	24,550	20,183	19,330	19,647	22,219	24,076	18%	18%	9%
Japan	1,537	2,012	8,737	18,758	19,709	19,186	17,602	19,485	21,687	148%	8%	8%

UK	2,858	2,694	6,961	8,002	12,995	13,169	14,657	16,551	19,245	176%	6%	7%
Hong Kong	695	1,671	6,913	12,654	16,008	16,098	15,640	15,946	17,129	148%	6%	6%
France	2,637	2,707	8,381	10,639	11,412	11,769	12,402	14,771	16,791	100%	7%	6%
Italy	797	779	2,580	4,703	6,139	6,697	7,576	9,342	11,130	331%	2%	4%
Spain	152	121	1,649	2,492	3,847	4,279	4,965	6,559	7,732	369%	1%	3%
Belgium					4,828	5,013	5,272	6,249	7,156	0%	0%	3%
Netherlands	2,875	2,045	4,768	5,132	5,371	5,220	5,250	5,943	6,644	39%	4%	2%
World	42,271	50,822	112,236	162,871	207,093	203,820	211,765	236,035	269,473	140%	100%	100%

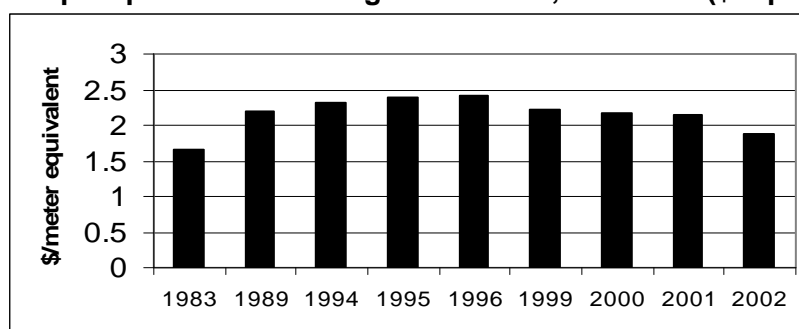
Source: Morris, Barnes and Esselaar (2006, forthcoming)

2.2. Preferential trading regimes and AGOA

This structure of the global clothing and textiles sector reflects three major factors. The first, is the concentration of global buying power in the industrialised countries (Gereffi and Memedovic 2003; Kaplinsky, 2005). The significance of this buyer concentration is their requirement for large volumes (and of course low prices). This has made it difficult for small scale suppliers to meet the requirements of large global buyers, and this has advantaged countries such as China with large volume plants, and transnational companies (often based in Hong Kong and Taiwan) who have a competitive advantage in organising large scale production runs.

The second major explanation for the structure of global production has been costs and efficiency. Although the clothing industry has become increasingly characterised by the requirement for shorter lead-times, greater inter- and intra seasonal variety and tighter logistics (ITC, 2004; Kaplinsky, 2005), cost has been king in this industry. The intensity of competition in these areas has been reflected in cost pressures, and as Figure 2 shows, since the mid-1990s there has been a secular downtrend in the global price of clothing (as reflected in the unit price of clothing imports not the USA).

Figure 2: US Import prices for clothing and textiles, 1983-2002 (\$/sq.m. equivalent)



Source: Manchester Trade Team (2005), from Textile Outlook International

The third and the most important determinant of global production structure has been the protective regime, since this has determined the pool of countries who can reliably serve these large scale global buyers with low cost and quality-assured product. Without going into too much detail, three protective regimes have been important, particularly in explaining SSA's role in this global industry. It is important to note here that it is the US protective regime which is most important to the SSA clothing and textiles industry, since the overwhelming share of exports are destined to the US market, particularly for Kenya, Lesotho and Swaziland (Table 2 provides the data for key SSA Eastern, and Southern African clothing exporters; it excludes Mauritius, which is a major exporter to the EU).

Table 2. Share of US in exports of key SSA clothing exporters.*

Supplier	Year	Exports (\$ '000):		
		World	USA	US share
Kenya	2000	51,527	46,701	90.6%
	2001	74,094	68,967	93.1%
	2002	139,607	135,180	96.8%
	2003	208,476	201,749	96.8%
	2004	305,448	295,520	96.7%
Lesotho	2000	154,192	146,364	94.9%
	2001	236,968	223,549	94.3%
	2002	347,957	342,432	98.4%
	2003	427,504	418,995	98.0%
	2004	494,155	481,787	97.5%
Madagascar	2000	610,683	115,377	18.9%
	2001	686,695	188,102	27.4%
	2002	237,440	96,706	40.7%
	2003	363,023	211,742	58.3%
	2004	559,501	345,728	61.8%
Swaziland	2000	37,712	33,356	88.4%
	2001	56,518	50,340	89.1%
	2002	102,219	95,352	93.3%
	2003	153,054	149,683	97.8%
	2004	190,537	188,467	98.9%
South Africa	2000	453,153	150,313	33.2%
	2001	456,433	183,713	40.2%
	2002	347,239	193,376	55.7%
	2003	415,233	248,532	59.9%
	2004	252,453	149,402	59.2%

* Mauritius is a major SSA exporter but is excluded from this table as it is not part of this study.

Source: UNSD COMTRADE database, accessed via World Integrated Trade Solution (WITS) on 15th December 2005; Country and sectoral data calculated on the basis of US imports

Historically, the most important preferential trade regime has been the Multifibre Arrangement (MFA) (formally superseded by the Agreement on Textiles and Clothing in 1994, but still largely referred to as the MFA). For the last quarter of the 20th Century the MFA regulated much of global trade and production in this sector, ratifying countries' rights to impose quotas on textiles and clothing imports. This quota-based preferential trade access meant that production spread to an ever-increasing number of countries. This was largely because firms in quota-full economies organised garment production in under-utilised quota producer countries. Thus, during the 1990s, a rapid process of third party organising and supply sourcing functions spread throughout the developing world to provide access to established markets. Hong Kong garment producers opened factories in Mauritius and elsewhere, and Korean and Taiwanese producers spread their operations to the Caribbean and to SSA. In turn, as they matured in their operations and established their own footholds, Mauritian garment producers also spread their operations to Madagascar. In more recent years, large Asian producers, especially in Hong Kong and Taiwan, developed the capacity to mobilise and coordinate full-package manufacture (i.e. all the manufacturing stages) in the global textile and clothing value chain, leading to what Gereffi (1999) termed "triangular production networks". In other words, production in one country (usually least developed) was organised and coordinated by firms in another (mostly middle-income) country, with products produced sold on to final buyers in yet a third (usually industrialised) economy.

Following a five-year phase-down, the MFA came to an end on December 31 2004, and with it, the termination of all quotas on textiles and clothing trade between member

states of the WTO. The final step of quota removal on the 1st January 2005 came as a “big bang” - 86.5 percent of US quotas and 73.3 percent of EU quotas were involved (Williams, Yuk-Choi and Yan, 2002: 580). However, the removal of quotas did not mean a “level playing field” since global trade in clothing and textiles is still regulated by tariffs. In the case of the US, in 2001 the average weighted tariff for clothing and textiles was 15.5 percent, but they ranged from around 13 to 17 percent for cotton products and from 25 to 35 percent for synthetic products.¹

The African Growth and Opportunities Act (AGOA) was signed into USA law on 18th May 2000, aiming to assist SSA by using trade as a means of generating revenue, investment and employment. The largest manufacturing sector beneficiary of AGOA has been the clothing and textiles sector, since the key relevant element of AGOA is that it extends the GSP preferences offered to low-income economies to clothing and textiles. AGOA incorporated different rules of origin to the GSP. It built on procedures which had been established early in the 1990s in relation to the Caribbean Basin Initiative allowing for the use of US-origin inputs or regional inputs in the calculation of minimum levels of value added (35 percent).

Nevertheless, despite these concessions, few SSA economies were able to meet these rules of origin in the clothing and textiles sector. Thus, in a further key amendment, AGOA-qualifying countries which were also classified under the UN’s “least developed category” (that is, per capita incomes of less than \$1,500 in 1998) were also subject to a further amendment to GSP rules of origin. That is, until September 2005 (subsequently amended to September 2007) they could source their material and accessory inputs from non-AGOA and non-US bases suppliers (up to a restricted share of US clothing imports), including from China and other Asian economies. In other words, they were freed from the minimum value added requirement.

In 2004, the six largest exporters of clothing and textiles to the US under the AGOA scheme were Lesotho, Madagascar, Kenya, Mauritius, Swaziland and South Africa (Table 3). The critical issue is the relationship between total exports of clothing and textiles and those which were AGOA qualifying rules (compare Tables 2 and 3). In 2004, excluding Mauritius and South Africa, more than 90 percent of SSA clothing and textiles exports to the US has been via AGOA’s preferential trade access. The share of AGOA exports in all exports grew rapidly between 2001 and 2004 (particularly for Swaziland and Kenya), and this reflects two general tendencies. First, new investments (including plant-expansion) were made, directly targeting AGOA exports to the US. And, second, in some cases pre-existing plants exporting to the US were brought under the AGOA umbrella. The impact that this clothing and textiles based industrialisation process has had on creating wage employment and reducing poverty in these poor SSA countries has been huge (see below).

¹ Ad valorem tariffs only (UNCTAD, 2003: 15). There are two explanations for the higher tariffs on synthetic products despite the fact that this is the area of speciality for the US clothing and textiles industry. First, the US industry saw cheap synthetics as a competitor to its cotton products. Second, synthetics were incorporated into the MFA at a later stage than cotton products, and the US industry which had been scarred by competition in cotton products, saw this as an opportunity to dampen potential future competition in synthetics. (We are grateful to Peter Minor for these observations).

Table 3: AGOA clothing exports to US, 2001 – 2004 (\$m, and % share of all clothing exports to US)

Country	2001		2002		2003		2004	
	\$m	%	\$m	%	\$m	%	\$m	%
Lesotho	129.2	60.1	317.7	98.9	372.6	94.9	447.6	98.2
Madagascar	92.1	51.8	75.4	84.4	186.3	94.9	314.5	97.3
Kenya	51.7	80.0	121.3	96.6	176.2	93.9	271.5	97.9
Mauritius	38.9	16.3	106.5	41.8	135.0	50.2	147.8	65.3
Swaziland	8.2	17.1	73.7	82.7	126.9	90.2	175.6	98.3
South Africa	30.4	17.4	85	46.9	126.6	54.5	114.7	81.2

Source: For 2001 and 2002, Gibbon, 2003; For 2003 and 2004, <http://dataweb.usitc.gov/> and www.tralac.org (Accessed March-October 2005)

2.3. SSA in the post quota era - Five key exporting economies

Predictions

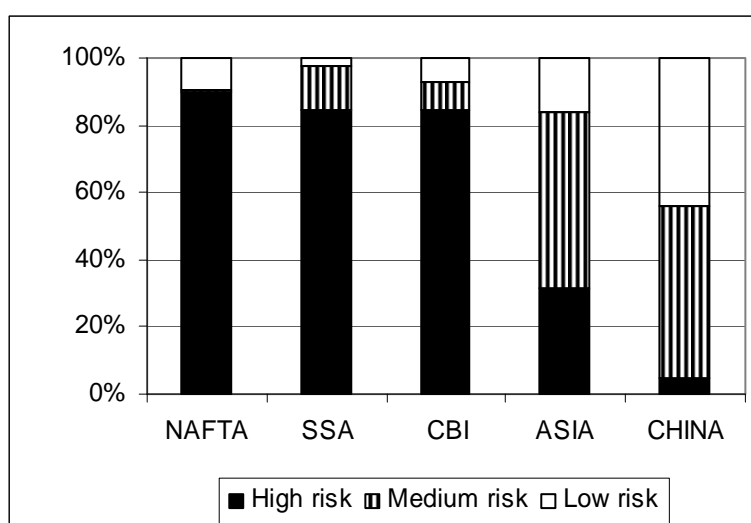
The “big bang” of January 2005 was a very significant event. It allowed countries such as China, which had formerly been limited in accessing major markets by import quotas, to compete on price. As we have seen, this does still not constitute a “level playing field”. Those countries such as the AGOA-qualifying economies and other groupings incorporated in preferential trading arrangements (for example, the Caribbean Basin Initiative economies and Mexico through NAFTA) continue to benefit from a remission of duties. China prepared for quota removal with investments to improve efficiency. In 2002 it accounted for 75 percent of global shuttleless loom purchases, and in the process of automation, displaced one million workers (USITC, 2004). This was reflected at the firm-level. For example, between 1998 and 2004 the Shanghai Shenda Group fired 50,000 workers out of a total labour force of 60,000 and closed 20 factories. In the same period, sales rose from \$170m to \$415m (Hilligas, 2004: 13).

It was not just China which geared itself for this change, but more importantly the global TNCs which had developed to serve the needs of the large scale buyers in the major clothing importing countries. Many of these clothing and textiles TNCs have their bases in Asia. In 2003, there were 20,000 FDI investments in China in clothing and textiles, and FDI inflows into this sector comprised 10 percent of overall incoming FDI into China. More than one-third of China’s clothing and textile exports in 2004 were directly exported by TNCs (Appelbaum, 2005), but perhaps more importantly, externally-based global intermediary buyers (Gereffi’s “triangular manufacturers”) coordinated much of the clothing and textiles exported directly by Chinese-owned companies.

In anticipation of quota removal, there were a large number of attempts to predict the outcome (Kaplinsky and Morris, 2006, Annex 1). With regard to SSA, most studies predicted a severe, if not catastrophic outcome, not only with regard to the indirect competitive impacts in third country markets, but also in regard to the poverty impact (Business for Social Responsibility, 2005). Figure 3, based on the widely-cited 2004 ITC Report, suggested that Asia in general, and China in particular would be the major beneficiaries of quota removal, and that NAFTA and SSA would be the major casualties.

Figure 3

USITC prediction of vulnerability of clothing exports following quota removal (% of clothing exports)



Source: Data derived from USITC (2004).

Outcomes

In assessing the outcome of the first year of quota removal, we focus on aggregate AGOA exports, as well as the major exporters (with the exception of Mauritius), namely Lesotho, Swaziland, Kenya, Madagascar and South Africa. We concentrate on the clothing sector since with the exception of South Africa, there are negligible direct exports of textiles to the US. In each case we compare export volumes, unit prices and market shares with China. (See Kaplinsky and Morris, 2006 for more detailed analysis and for a comparison with India and other East Asian economies).

As can be seen from Table 4 and Figure 4, the major trends were that:

- The value of African clothing exports to the US dropped by 17 percent in the first year after quota removal. Lesotho experienced a similar fall in export value, followed by Madagascar (14 percent fall) and Swaziland (10 percent decline). The two outliers were Kenya, where exports declined by only three percent, and South Africa, whose exports collapsed by 45 percent.
- By contrast, the value of China's exports to the US of the same products grew very rapidly, by 58 percent by comparison with all AGOA exports and to a larger extent by comparison with the 10 major traded products of individual countries.²
- Unit prices on average remained reasonably stable in key product groupings for individual countries, with Madagascar experiencing the sharpest decline (10 percent). By comparison, in the same product groupings, the unit value of Chinese exports almost halved. (However, it is not clear to what extent this was due to a reduction in the unit prices of individual products, or China's entry into

² In each case in Table 4, we compare Chinese export values and unit values in the 20 largest 10-digit product groupings for AGOA and each SSA country's exports to the US.

producing lower-end products within each of these 10-digit product classifications)

- In general AGOA economies performed less badly in their major exported items than they did in aggregate, suggesting a process of specialisation. However, alarmingly, in general China's export growth in these sectors and the rate of price decline was faster than for its overall exports, suggesting potentially heightened competition for SSA products in the future.
- The share of SSA exporters in the US clothing and textiles imports grew between 2001 and 2004, reflecting the combination of quota-access and preferential AGOA trading arrangements. However, the removal of MFA quotas set back this advance, and African exporters experienced a significant fall in their share of the US market after quota removal. By contrast, the share of China in each of these major product markets grew significantly.
- South Africa reflects a possible and negative face of SSA's future. Unable to access imported materials through the derogation on market-entry for least-developed countries, it uniquely saw a very large fall (a halving in fact) of its exports to the US.

Table 4; Change in value of exports and unit prices in clothing exports to the US, 2004-2005 (%), weighted average of top 10 products for individual countries*

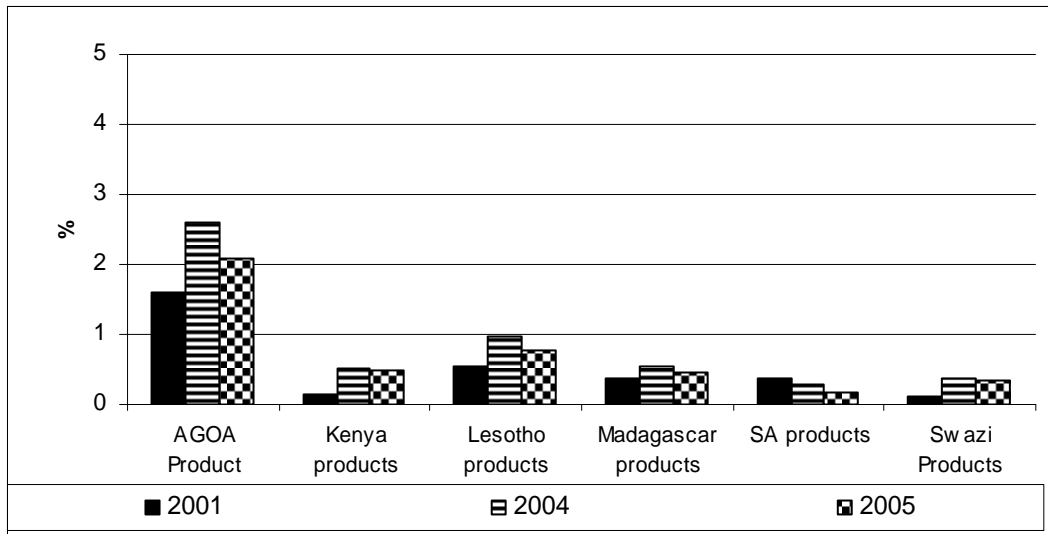
	Value (% change)		Unit prices (% change)	
	SSA	China	SSA	China
AGOA	-17	58	-0.9	-45.9
Lesotho	-17	112	-3.2	-46.2
Madagascar	-14	76	-9.5	-44.0
S. Africa	-45	65	3.0	-33.0
Swaziland	-10	91	-2.7	-51.9
Kenya	-3	97	-1.9	-44.8

* In each case China's exports are in the same 10-digit product groupings as are those of the individual countries.

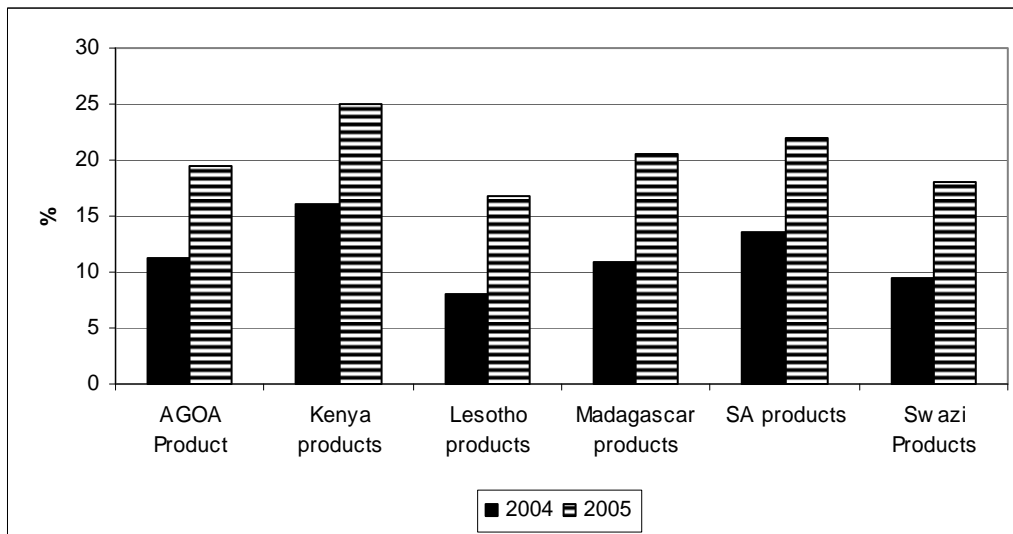
Source: Calculated from <http://dataweb.usitc.gov> data, accessed on 10th January 2006

Figure 4: AGOA and China import share in products in which AGOA countries specialised

AGOA country share of US market in 10-digit product categories in which country exports were concentrated in 2005



China's share of US market in 10-digit product categories in which AGOA country exports were concentrated in 2005



Source: Calculated from <http://dataweb.usitc.gov> data, accessed on 10th January 2006

Source: Industry and Government interviews

A major consequence of this decline in exports from the AGOA region was the impact on employment and overall economic activity. At its peak, in 2002, Lesotho's clothing exports to the US accounted for virtually all manufactured exports, and contributed 50 percent of GDP. In Kenya in 2003, clothing enterprises accounted for the equivalent of nearly 20 percent of all formal sector manufacturing employment. Table 5 shows the impact of quota removal on employment in 2005. In Swaziland, most severely affected, overall employment more than halved; in Lesotho it fell by 29 percent and even in Kenya (where clothing exports had only fallen by three percent in 2005), employment declined by nearly ten percent. The South African case is much worse than appears

from Table 5, since there had been severe employment loss in the industry in the years preceding quota removal – as we have seen, unlike the other AGOA economies in this Table, South Africa had not been able to progress its AGOA clothing exports on the back of imported fabrics.

Table 5: Employment decline in the clothing sector, 2004-2005.

	2004	2005	% decline
Kenya	34,614	31,745	9.3
Lesotho	50,217	35,678	28.9
S Africa	110,739		12.2
Swaziland	32,000	14,000	56.2

Source: Industry and Government interviews

2.4. Buyer intentions

The broad conclusion from this trade analysis is that although there has been considerable pricing pressure and employment loss, and although some sectors (knitwear) and some economies (South Africa and Lesotho) were hit worse than others, SSA AGOA exports were surprisingly resilient. This outcome, at least in the first year after quota removal, runs against some of the bolder predictions of the post-quota future of SSA’s clothing and textile sector.

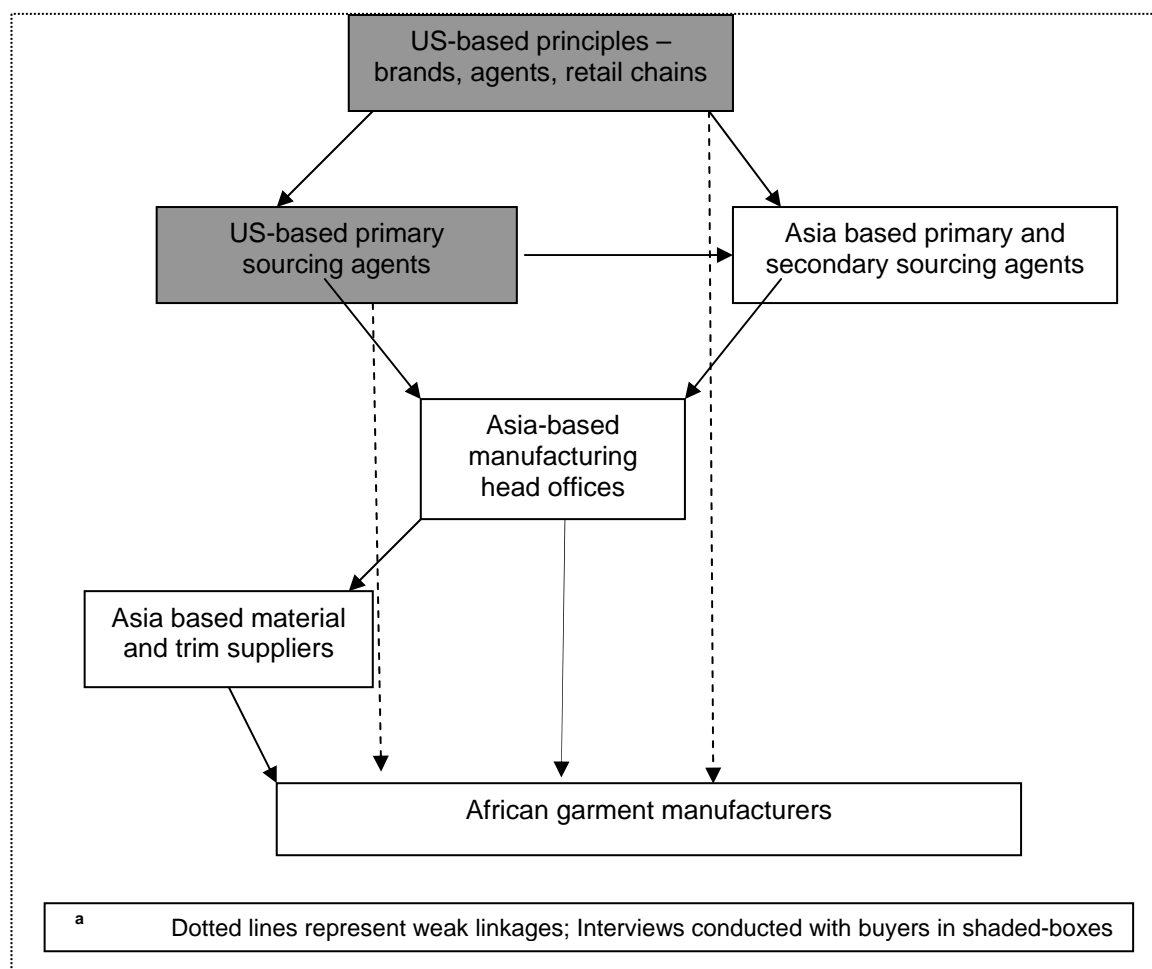
In searching for an explanation for this we polled the major US buyers. The purchasing process is triggered by the final retailers in the US who, often using in-house design offices, define the product lines and price points which they require for the coming season. In a very limited number of cases retailers (such as Walmart) and brand-sellers (such as The Gap) make direct contact with manufacturers. But in most cases they pass over their requirements to US-based primary sourcing agents. These primary sourcing agents, in turn, either contact secondary sourcing agents in producing countries, or more commonly and especially when there are very large orders, make contact with Asian-based manufacturing companies (the “triangular manufacturers”). It is these manufacturing houses who ultimately decide where different products are to be sourced from, and most often provide clothing manufacturers not just with the designs, but also the fabrics which they use. However, in most cases the US principals and sourcing agents are aware of the source of these garments and influence the decision made by their Asian intermediary buyers and manufacturing houses

Our interviews were exclusively with the US-based retail and sourcing agents, shaded grey in Figure 5. Our reasons for this decision were based on the premise that SSA clothing exports were overwhelmingly destined for the US final market (Tables 2 and 3 above), and we assumed that it was here that the key sourcing decisions were to be made.

The views and perspectives of 20 U.S. buyers were obtained through a telephone survey undertaken in the summer of 2005. These companies are large, multi-store operations with substantive global sourcing activities in clothing and other consumer goods. The participants came from four key market segments: branded specialty retail

(nine responses), manufacturers (branded and private label, eight responses), department stores (two responses), and mass merchants (one response). The share of their total sourcing portfolio which comes from SSA ranges from one to five percent with the exception of one small company (turnover of \$30m in 2004) which obtained 30 percent of its product from SSA.

Figure 5: Triangular manufacturing and SSA clothing exports to the USA^a



Amongst the issues we explored with buyers (see Kaplinsky and Morris 2006 for a discussion of wider issues) was whether quota-removal was likely to lead them to retreat from SSA, and whether this differed between the short-term (the coming one-to-two years) and the medium-term (the coming three-to-five years). A key response (Table 6) was that 16 of the 19 respondents said that they were largely sourcing from SSA in order to compete on price. Their inability to access product from quota-constrained economies such as China had not been the major reason why they were importing from SSA.³ Second, and as a consequence of SSA's current price competitiveness, around half of the buyers thought that there would be no change over the coming two years, and four of them said that, if anything, they were likely to increase purchases from SSA. However, there is clearly an expectation that SSA will suffer from diminishing competitiveness, since when asked about intentions over the

³ However, to some extent SSA's price competitiveness had its origins in the quota-system. Given an absolute limit in the number of items which could be exported, Chinese producers generally tended to concentrate on high-price, high-margin products, leaving SSA concentrated at the bottom-end of the price range.

medium-term, almost half of the buyers (nine of the 19) thought that they were likely to decrease imports from SSA over the three-to-five year time horizon.

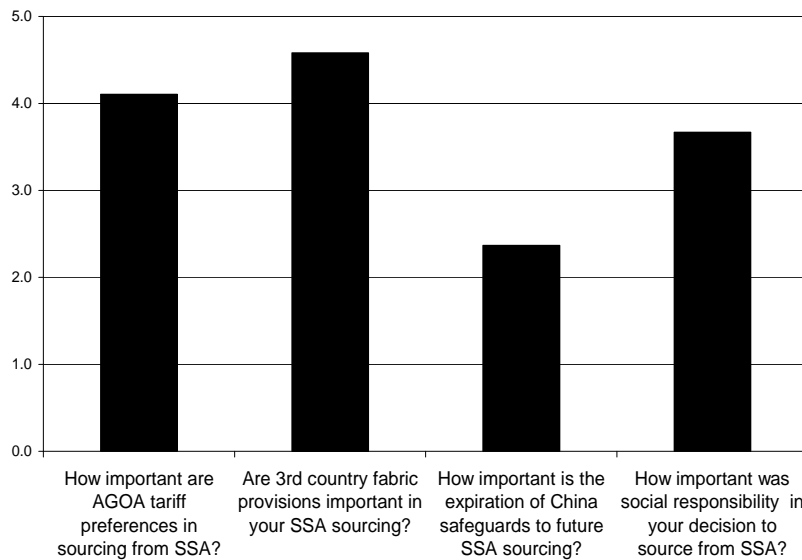
Table 6: How important have MFA quotas been in your decision to source from SSA? (Number of buyers)

	Decrease	Unchanged	Increase	Total
“How are you likely to change SSA sourcing as a result of quota elimination?”	3	16	0	19
“What are your plans to source from SSA in the next 1-2 years?”	4	11	4	19
“What are your plans to source from SSA in the next 3-5 years?”	9	8	2	19

If quotas were not a major reason why buyers currently source from SSA, then how important are AGOA preferences to SSA’s competitiveness? The response (Figure 6) was that this was clearly critical, with more than half of the buyers (10 out of 19) reporting that it was “very important”. However, even more important was the view that it was the derogation on the rules of origin allowing AGOA economies to source fabrics from Asia which made it possible for these economies to compete (15 of the 19 buyers characterised this as being “very important”). Again, reflecting the fact that quotas have not been the basis for sourcing from SSA in recent years, few of the buyers thought that existing or likely future “China safeguards” would make much difference.⁴ A majority of buyers also thought that consumer pressures on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) were a significant factor in sourcing from SSA, reflecting the growing commercial need of buyers to show awareness of the poverty-impact of their sourcing decisions.

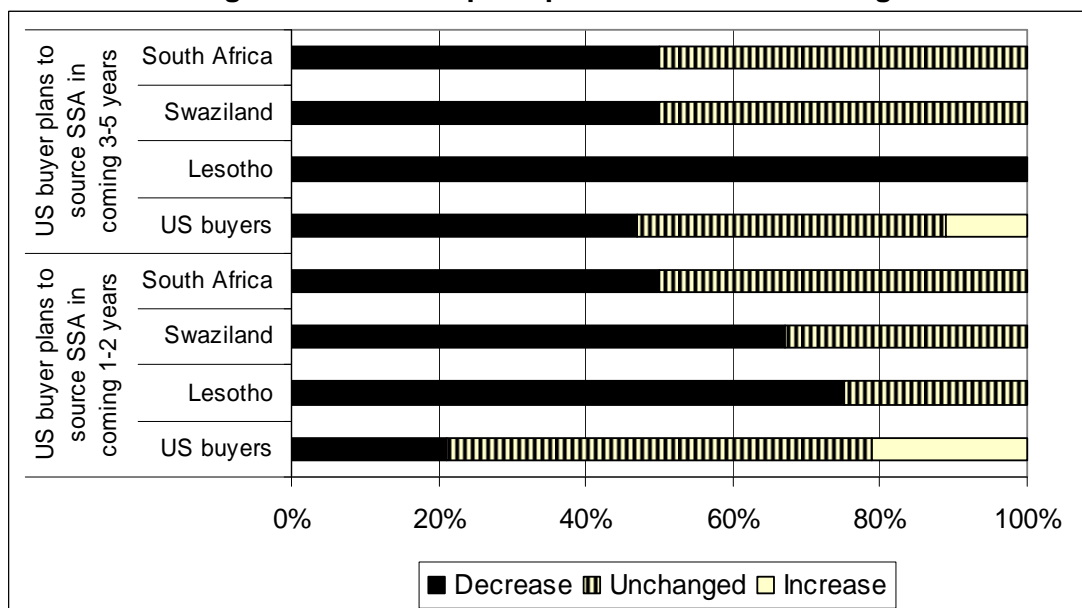
⁴ The Chinese accession agreement to the WTO, allows for safeguard tariffs and quotas to be applied solely against Chinese textiles and clothing, even when imports exert only a slight adverse impact on the domestic industry. In June 2005, the EU and China reached an agreement that limited 10 categories of Chinese textiles exports to the EU to between 8 and 12.5 percent growth above a specified base period for the next three years. In December 2005, the US. and Chinese trade representatives agreed to a three-year agreement reducing US. imports of Chinese textile and apparel products in all or parts of 34 sensitive categories.

Figure 6: Buyer perceptions of the relative importance of AGOA preferences, China safeguards and corporate social responsibility in the decision to source from SSA (1=not important; 5= very important)



To close the triangle, we also interviewed enterprises in the five SSA countries. One of the more surprising outcomes of these plant level visits was the unrealistic pessimism of the firms, at least insofar as this is reflected in responses from enterprises in Kenya, Lesotho, Swaziland and South Africa. As Figure 7 shows, the US buyers have much more positive intentions of staying in the region than the firms perceive. Fully 80 percent of them expect either to have unchanged purchasing requirements or increased requirements from SSA over the coming 1-2 years, and almost half believe that this will be the case even over the 3-5 year time horizon. By contrast, producers in all countries (and especially Lesotho) think it much more likely that sourcing requirements will deteriorate.

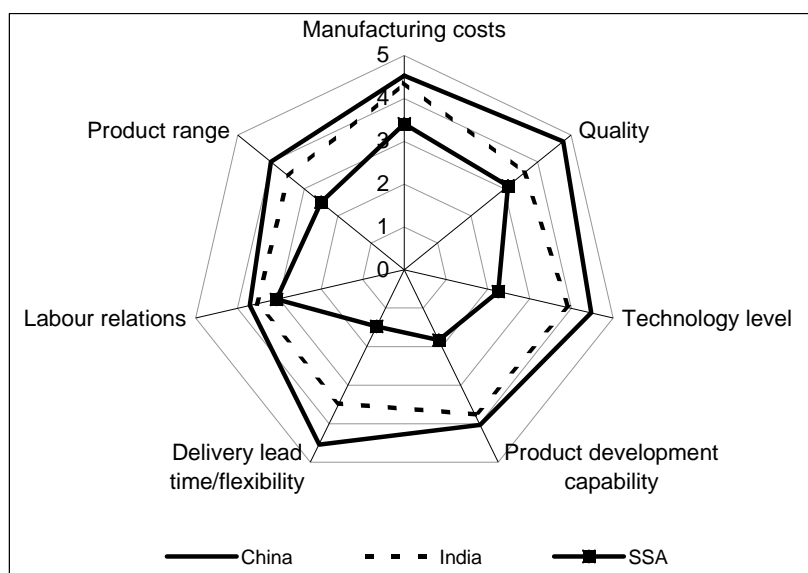
Figure 7: Producer perceptions of future sourcing from SSA



Finally, we asked the US buyers to rank the performance of firms in SSA when compared to Chinese and Indian counterparts (Figure 8). Chinese firm capabilities

were clearly seen to be more developed, in every respect, followed by Indian suppliers and the, some way behind, by SSA suppliers. The performance gap was smallest for labour relations, and greatest for delivery time and flexibility, product development capabilities, technology levels and quality. With the exception of delivery time, these are all areas where SSA firms can improve and this is an issue which we address in the policy conclusions below.

Figure 8: The performance of SSA, China and India clothing firms on operational factors (1=very poor performance; 5=excellent performance)



Source: Company interviews

2. 5. Can an export-oriented SSA clothing and textile industry survive in the post-quota era?

As we have seen, contrary to the expectations of many, the removal of quotas has not led to a collapse of AGOA clothing and textile exports. Indeed, in some cases, they have even increased. We should however put one large caveat on this conclusion. One key informant asserted that the reason why export values seem to have declined less than employment has been due to illegal transshipments from China, with clothing either directly brought into AGOA countries and then re-exported, or the paperwork suggesting that this was the case. (This is akin to transfer-pricing, which has long bedevilled international trade statistics and undermined government tax revenues). It is notable that the ten percent fall in Swazi exports to the US is much lower than the loss in total employment (56 percent in the same period). We are unable to judge whether these assertions – apparently currently the subject of investigation – are accurate and the analysis below is agnostic on the issue.

It is widely believed that by limiting China's export surge, the introduction of China safeguards in the US (and in the EU) midway through 2005 may lead to a further strengthening of SSA clothing and textile exports. However, the impact of the imposition of China safeguards is generally misinterpreted. Although designed to "protect domestic industry" from Chinese competition, it is not only China whose exports were kept out of major importing markets by quotas. Other low-cost and high-quality Asian producers are similarly able to compete effectively in the major markets, and they, rather than SSA or domestic industries in the US and the EU, are likely to be

the primary medium term beneficiaries of China safeguards. Firm interviews reported some resurgence of orders to SSA in the immediate aftermath of China safeguards. In the immediate context of safeguards being imposed, existing relationships between US buyers and SSA producers clearly have had a role to play when alternative sourcing was necessary. The key however lies in the medium term, when buyers have more time to make and set in place new sourcing decisions.

Although, historically, quotas were important in the establishment of the export-oriented clothing and textiles sector in SSA, the key to understanding the relatively robust performance of SSA AGOA exporters lies in the realm of costs. This, as we have seen from earlier analysis, is the single most important driver for the buyers. Within this, the degree of competitive advantage held by AGOA exporters arises from their duty preferences. And, here, US nominal tariffs significantly underestimate the degree of preference which AGOA producers are actually accorded. This can be seen by taking the example of two different products exported by Swaziland producers (Table 7). The first product is cotton denim jeans, where nominal duty preference is 16.6 percent, and the second is synthetic women’s underwear, where the nominal duty preference is higher, at 28.2 percent.

In effect, these tariffs are a form of cost-subsidy to exporting firms. However, the rates of effective subsidy on these products are in fact much higher than these nominal rates, due to the derogation which Swaziland (and all other AGOA producers bar Mauritius and South Africa) producers have in using imported fabrics. That is, the nominal duty applies to the whole value of the product, but for AGOA producers using the fabrics derogation, much of the value of their output is made up of imported material. Moreover, not only do the synthetic products’ manufacturers gain from higher duties, but because in general cotton products are more complex to manufacture, the proportion of (generally imported) cotton fabric is in fact lower than in the case of imported synthetic material products. Hence, in the case of cotton products (such as denim), the effective rate of subsidy provided by this protective regime is 27.7 percent (rather than 16.6 percent), and in the case of synthetic products (such as underwear) it is 83.9 percent (rather than 28.2 percent)

Table 7: Value added and effective rates of subsidy in cotton denim jeans and synthetic women’s undergarments in two Swaziland clothing factories

	Denim jeans	Synthetic women’s undergarments
Labour costs	45%	30%
Fabric and other imported inputs	40%	66%
Utilities	3%	1%
Distribution	2%	2%
Other (agent fee, transport, etc)	10%	1%
Total	100%	100%
Duty preference	16.6%	28.2%
Effective rate of subsidy	27.7	83.9

Source: Company interviews

An indication of the influence of the higher rate of effective subsidy on AGOA clothing and textile exports can be seen in relation to the value of exports of different products. There is a significant positive correlation between tariff rates and the value of exports with regard to the export of 120 products (the top 20 products exported by each of the

five countries plus the top-five AGOA exported products) (Table 8). In other words, the higher the tariff preferences, the more likely export values will rise. However, this may only confer a temporary advantage. These same sectors are being targeted by Chinese and other Asian producers. This is evidenced by a significant negative correlation between tariff preference levels and unit prices. In other words, it is precisely those highly protected sectors which are under the most severe forms of price pressure, and where falling market shares are most likely to be experienced by AGOA exporters.

Table 8: Correlations between the degree of tariff preference, the value of exports and the unit price of exports to the US: 120 sectors^a

	Correlation coefficient	Degree of significance ^b
Value of exports	0.189	0.05
Unit price	-0.146	0.10

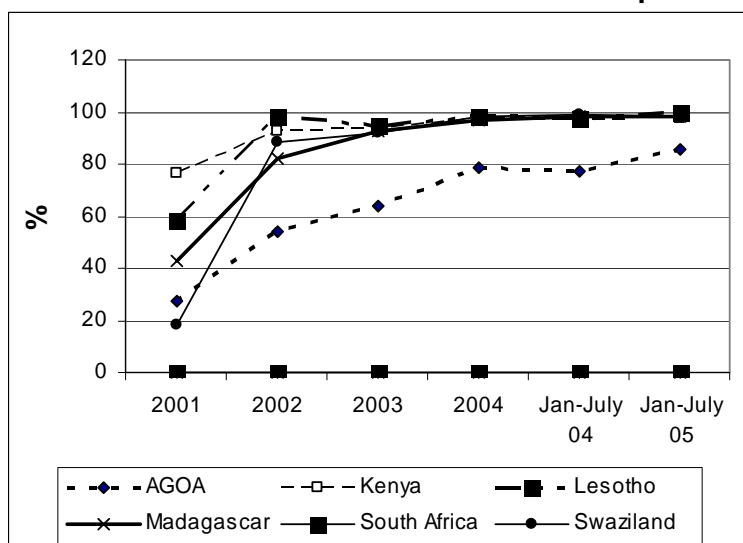
^a top 20 products for each of AGOA, Lesotho, South Africa, Swaziland and Madagascar.
^b Pearson product moment correlation coefficient two tailed test

The fabric derogation is critical...

It follows from this discussion on the impact of tariffs that without the derogation from the AGOA rules of origin which allow least developed qualifying SSA economies to import their fabrics from outside of the region (or the US), little of the clothing and textile industries in the region would survive. As can be seen from Figure 9, with the exception of South Africa (which also affects the AGOA total), almost all fabric in AGOA clothing exports has been imported (although the new denim mill opened in Lesotho in 2004 will reduce this somewhat in the future).⁵ South Africa’s experience represents the dark side of AGOA clothing producers future when and if the fabric derogation is repealed. Its inability to import fabrics, on top of an appreciated exchange rate, lies at the source of the virtual halving of its AGOA exports in 2005 compared to 2004. In fact the trajectory of the South African industry – severe difficulties in exporting clothing made from natural fibres, a focus on the domestic market and moving into high technology textile niches (see below) – may represent one option facing other SSA producers. But unlike South Africa with its long tradition of industrial production and a developed textile sector, these options may not be possible for other SSA producers.

⁵ Most of the firms operating in the region source their material inputs from East Asia in general, and predominantly from China. This is an ironical side effect of the derogation on the rules of entry, in that given the importance of fabrics in production costs (especially in the case of synthetics), the primary beneficiary of the AGOA scheme are the Asian fabric suppliers!

Figure 9: Share of non-AGOA and non-US cloth in AGOA exports to US, 2004-2005.



Source: Calculated from US Department of Commerce, Office of Textiles and Apparel (OTEXA).

Although of primary significance, the combination of tariff protection and the derogation on the rules of origin are not the only factor influencing the competitive costs of SSA producers. In other respects some SSA are also penalised. Although Kenya has wage costs which are comparable to Asia, this is not the case for South Africa (Table 9). Wages are only one component of unit labour costs. The other components are the degree of automation involved, the skills possessed by the labour force and the effectiveness of management. A detailed investigation of productivity in Lesotho observed low levels of skill and efficiency (Salm et. al., 2002). Middle management was particularly weak, and was largely made up of Chinese workers with shopfloor experience, but little management know-how and largely unable to communicate with the Sesotho speaking labour force. They concluded that “operator productivity within the industry was generally low. This is principally due to deficient recruitment policies, inadequately trained operators, poor supervisory management, communication difficulties and cross-cultural misunderstanding (Salm et. al., 2002: 51)”...”The Industrial Engineering function .. is not carried out in a focused manner.. [with the possibilities of] ” significant improvements in productivity (passim). Poor labour relations are part of this. A detailed survey of worker attitudes found that 51.3 percent of workers felt “very negative” towards their employers, and a further 14.3 percent felt “quite negative”. Only one percent felt “very positive”. 54 percent felt that their lives had not improved at all since joining their factories, and a further 37 percent that it had improved “only a little”. “There was remarkable consensus across the different focus groups: regardless of age, employment status or gender the participants expressed fundamentally the same views... The overwhelming majority see Asian investors (their factory managers) in an extremely negative light” (Salm et al, 2002: Annex 3, 21)

Table 9: Labour costs: Hourly compensation: Selected countries 2002: US\$/hour

	Textiles Industry	Clothing Industry
Bangladesh	0.25	0.39
Sri Lanka	0.4	0.48
China	0.4-0.69	0.68-0.88
India	0.57	0.38
Kenya	0.62	0.38
Egypt	1.01	0.77
Mauritius	1.33	1.25
South Africa	2.17	1.38
Mexico	2.3	2.45
Taiwan	7.15	Na
Madagascar	na	0.33

Source: Economist Intelligence Unit (2004)

The Manchester Trade Team (2005) compared costs along a range of factors for COMESA and China and India for an equivalent product to show the barriers faced by SSA clothing exporters. They found that:

- Export finance costs in Kenya (13 percent p.a.) and Madagascar (18 percent p.a) were much higher than in China (5.5 percent) and India (10.5 percent)
- Material costs were much higher in Kenya (\$3/sq ft) and Madagascar (\$4/sq. ft) than in China (\$1.50/sq ft) and in India ((\$2.50/sq.ft)
- Transport costs to the US East Coast were lower for Kenya and Madagascar than for China (\$0.29 versus \$0.33 per jean) but were lowest for India (\$0.23 per jean).
- The cost of machinery and of power were rather similar, but labour productivity with equivalent machines was significantly higher in China (25 pieces/day) than in India (21 p.d.), Kenya (18 p.d) and Madagascar (16 p.d).

Clothing manufactures depend heavily on access to reliable infrastructure. Here SSA producers are disadvantaged compared to their Asian counterparts. In some countries water supplies, critical to successful production are intermittent. One of the clothing firms in Lesotho had to close 13 out of 23 lines in 2004 due to water cost, availability and quality and another Lesotho firm also observed poor water supplies as a handicap to production, along with power outages. Swazi firms also reported water shortages and power outages. In Kenya, production is often confined to EPZs precisely because of the failure of infrastructure supplies in the wider economy, and electricity costs are more than three times those in South Africa (Ikiara and Ndirangu, 2003). The comparison with China is stark, with Kenyan firms facing frequent outages, losing significant production due to power shortages, despite having to invest in generators, and new businesses have to wait very long periods for connection to the grid (Table 10).

Table 10: Electricity supplies in Kenya and China

	Kenya	China
Freq of power outages (times last yr)	33.1	n.a.
% of production lost due to power outages	9.3	1.8
Have own generator (%)	70.0	17
No. of days to obtain an electricity connection	65.6	18.2

Source: World Bank, 2003

The weakness of the transport system, associated with bureaucratic hold-ups also leads to considerable delays and makes it almost impossible for SSA producers to produce items for higher-margins rapid-response markets. Unlike Asian competitors, SSA producers have to wait around 30 days to obtain their imported inputs and a further 28-40 days to deliver product to final markets (Table 11). However effective production might be, perhaps halving throughput time to around 15 days, it will not be possible to make up for these structural weaknesses in the economy.

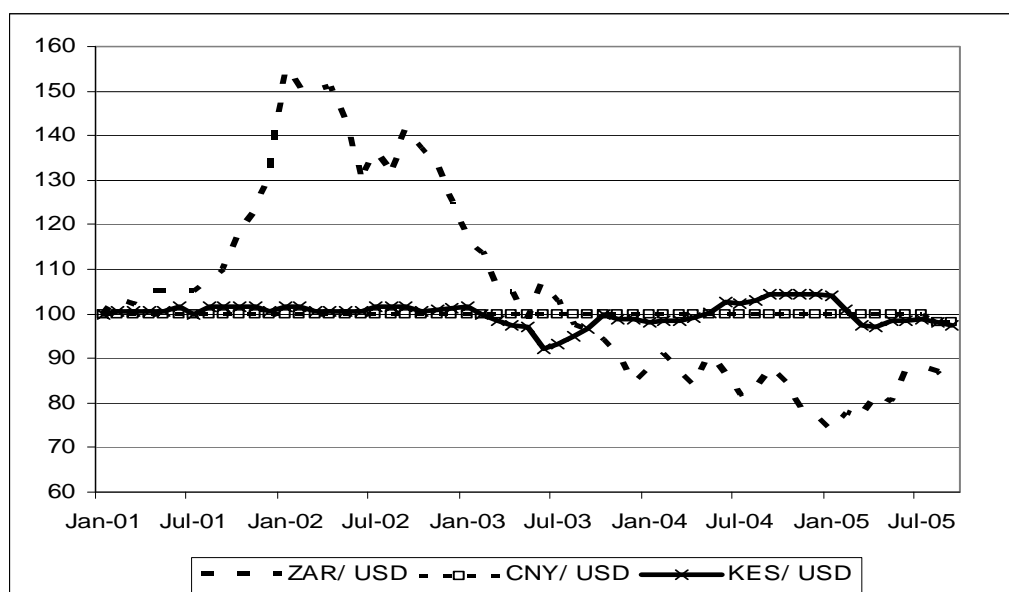
Table 11: Determinants of lead time – Kenya, Lesotho and Swaziland

Delivery type	Kenya	Lesotho	Swaziland
Delivery of fabric from Asia (Taiwan or China)	30 days	30 days	30 days
From port to factory	7 days (Nairobi)	3 days	3-10 days
Production lead-time	30 days	25 - 30 days	25-30 days
Factory gate to port	3 days	3 day	2 days
Port to U.S.A. Port (NY)	40 days Mombassa to NY	28 days Durban to NY	28 days Durban to NY
Total delivery time	110 days	90 – 100 days	90-100 days

Source: Company interviews

Finally, those economies linked to the South African Rand faced a further disadvantage. The Chinese renminbi has been pegged to the US\$ for some years, although in mid-2005 there was a mild revaluation of 3.5 percent?.. Similarly, the Kenyan shilling was pegged to the \$ and neither of these economies faced adverse exchange rate movements in their sales to the US (or indeed to the EU, since the € appreciated in relation to the \$). The major casualties amongst SSA AGOA economies were the three Southern African economies and Madagascar. As Figure 10 shows, between early 2002 and mid 2005, the Rand appreciated by more than 50 percent against the dollar, with an adverse impact on South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland.

Figure 10: Exchange rate against the US\$ - China, Kenya and South Africa



Source: UN (<https://pengva1.unjspf.org>) last accessed 3 January 2005

With the exception of South Africa, the impact of currency depreciation was less severe than it seems at first sight. This is because around 40 percent of value added in the case of natural fibre products, and two-thirds of value added in the case of synthetic products comprised imported material, and whilst currency appreciation has a downside on the export side, it has an upside in reducing the costs of imports. This is another factor which may act to promote the shift from natural to synthetic fibre products. South Africa is the exception to this since together with Mauritius, it has no access to imported fabrics for AGOA exports and the appreciation of the Rand has made South African fabric more expensive.

Despite these handicaps, the evidence seems to suggest that SSA clothing and textile exporters who are able to draw on trade preferences are still largely able to compete with the best competition in the world. They also do so with the evidence of significant productivity improvement over the past year, in that export values and volumes have held up much better than employment in Kenya, Lesotho and Swaziland. Moreover, as various industry analysts have pointed out, there is considerable scope for further improvements in efficiency (Manchester Trade Team, 2005, Salm et. al, 2002). But to achieve this requires tailored and effective government support and, more importantly, comprehensive firm-level restructuring in the industry. Enhanced capacities of innovation management – the ability to scan the environment, to develop appropriate strategies, and then to implement these strategies – are key to a successful response.

Here, the response of South African producers may provide some pointers to other SSA clothing manufacturers. Confronted by an appreciating currency and an inability to source low-cost Asian fabric, South African manufacturers have chosen from six options – exit from the market, concentration on the local market, upgrading production capabilities seeking to attain world class manufacturing operational performance, using local fabrics, focusing on higher value added fashion garments as well as using man-made synthetic fabric, and upgrading into specialised niches. The second of these options - the local market – is not without its difficulties. A producer of underwear faced

a 50 percent increase in imports in the first six months of 2005, predominantly from China, with a halving of its exports. Hence the industry is focusing on a rapid-response capability to help its retailers to slim overall inventories and to respond flexibly to changing market tastes. This strategy currently goes hand in hand with attempts (driven by the domestic retailers) to synergise the local value chain and achieve systemic efficiency. Closely allied to it is the third option of developing localised clusters to upgrade operational capabilities through learning networks. These are however still in their infancy and the jury is still out as to whether they will achieve the same success levels as similar initiatives in the South African automotive sector.

The fourth option – deeper investments in fabric production – confronts the need for nervous investors to commit large sums of money to what are perceived to be risky ventures. Our interviews with textile producers in South Africa did not identify major dynamism in this sector. This affects not just the viability of the South African industry, but the future of other SSA economies which might cope with the phased removal of the fabric derogation in 2007 by sourcing material from South Africa. Its current textile capabilities are not adequate to meet these needs and numerous firms in the region have tried to source from South Africa and found the mills to be unresponsive and high cost, with long lead times and poor quality. The attempts to synergise the domestic value chain may well turn the textile sector around and overcome these inefficiencies.

The fifth option takes advantage of AGOA's higher tariff rates for producing clothing using synthetic fabric. Firms in both Swaziland and South Africa have adopted this route and tried to diversify from natural fibre products. However, despite the higher protection levels this strategy accords, its usage has been limited primarily to Swaziland. Finally the sixth option – upgrading into specialised niches - has been more successfully pursued by some South African firms. One large firm began manufacturing suit linings in the 1960s, moving into industrial fabrics in the early 1970s. The industrial fabric division was developed to also cover the parachute sector, and specialised and high-tech industrial products now comprise 70 percent of output, and are targeted to reach 90 percent of sales by 2007. Significantly, this high-tech textile producer is very capital intensive in nature – labour costs are only 14 percent of costs (compared to 45 percent in the natural fibres clothing sector). Although this transition is beyond the reach of producers in other least developed SSA markets, the strategy of focusing on long-term upgrading and diversification provides an important lesson for SSA textile and clothing producers.

Even if technologically-sophisticated upgrading is difficult, there may nevertheless be scope for diversification to take advantage of emerging opportunities. For example, like South Africa, the Mauritian clothing industry was unable to take advantage of the derogation on rules of entry. It therefore targeted an AGOA exemption for yarns which are in short supply in the US, and used this to import Chinese and Italian yarn to manufacture high quality shirts for the US market. Thus comparing 2004 with 2003, dutiable exports declined by 43 percent and duty-free exports to the US increased by 17 percent (Appelbaum, 2005).

3. FROM CLOTHING AND TEXTILES TO INDUSTRY: WHAT IMPACT WILL THE ASIAN DRIVERS HAVE ON SSA INDUSTRIALISATION?

We began by stressing the importance of a multi-dimensional approach when analysing the impact of the Asian Drivers. This meant viewing the globalisation effects through the prism of the triangular relationships of South-South and South-North, which we posed as direct/indirect and complementary/competitive impacts. Producing a methodological taxonomy to grasp this complexity does not however mean that it has an analytic validity. This can only be verified by testing empirically and we have done so by an empirical analysis of the clothing and textile industry in Sub Saharan Africa. It would seem that the soundness of this complex analytical tool has been vindicated.

What of the empirical conclusions from the analysis? We begin by relating the performance of SSA's clothing and textile sector in the post-quota era to the taxonomic overview presented in Figure 1 at the head of this paper. Here we distinguished between two dimensions of effects – the competitive/complementary dimension, and the direct/indirect one. Of the five possible vectors of transmission, it is in the trade and production realms that we can observe Asian Driver impacts on SSA's clothing and textiles industry.

Figure 11 summarises what we have found. Essentially, the complementary impacts are to be found in fabric-sourcing from Asia by SSA-based firms, and by FDI from Asia. Most of AGOA's clothing exports originate from Asian-owned firms which were initially attracted to SSA by quotas and now remain due to the high rates of effective subsidy provided by AGOA. Both of these complementary impacts are a consequence of direct bilateral impacts between SSA economies and China and other Asian economies. The competitive impacts to SSA arising from the expansion of the Asian Driver economies are predominantly indirect in nature. They are primarily experienced in very intense pressures on prices and market shares in the US (and the EU), and a diversion of FDI from SSA to Asia. However there are also indirect effects in the displacement of production by indigenous firms. South Africa represents the one case where the competitive impacts are of a direct nature. This is due to the rapid penetration of the substantial domestic market by Chinese clothing and textile products.

Although no accurate weighting can be given to these different impacts, it is clear that by far the most important one is the indirect impact on prices and market shares in global markets (shaded grey in Figure 11)

Figure 11. Asian Driver impact on the SSA clothing and textile sectors

Trade		Direct	Indirect
	Complementary	SSA imports of fabrics SSA imports of cheaper clothing	
Competitive	Displacement of indigenous textile sector by imports from Asian Drivers		Severe pressure on prices and market shares in US (and EU)
Production and FDI		Direct	Indirect
	Complementary	Historic and sustained FDI by Taiwanese, Sri Lankan and Indian firms, initially to obtain quota access and now to take advantage of high rates of effective subsidy	
Competitive	Asian Driver firms compete for scarce resources and reduce opportunities for local firms		Disinvestment and relocation of investments in Asia, and potentially new FDI locating in Asian Driver economies

Shading denote the important impact

What is the wider significance of these findings? Here we can point to six important issues. The first concerns the negative impact of globalisation on SSA. Where buyers have multiple sources of supply, SSA is unable to compete effectively in global markets. In a world of a level playing field, it will have little global presence as an exporter. In the case of clothing, SSA has been unable to fully hold on to its already tenuous position with effective rates of subsidy provided by a preferential trade regime of between 28 and 84 percent and has seen an aggregate decline in clothing exports of 17 percent, despite a sharp rise in US imports of clothing in 2005. Our complementary study of SSA's furniture industry, where protective subsidies are less than 13 percent shows that without these subsidies, SSA producers are being squeezed out by Chinese, Indonesian and Vietnamese competition (Kaplinsky and Morris, 2006). South Africa remains the only significant exporter of wooden furniture, and its exports have fallen in value. Total SSA furniture exports are around one percent of global trade, having fallen from 1.5 percent in 2000. So, our first conclusion is that SSA requires a non-level playing field in global trade, significantly tilted in its favour, and primarily tilted against its major competitors who are now based in Asia, rather than in the EU or North America.

Second, domestic manufacturers in a range of industries are suffering badly from import competition, particularly in consumer goods markets, from China. In addition to the clothing and furniture sectors (discussed above), similar trends can be found in industries such as footwear in Ethiopia (Egziabher, 2006).

The third is the terms of trade effect and the emergence of classic Dutch Disease effects, but with a regional sting in the tail. One of the primary causes of South Africa's resurgent economic growth has been a boom in (hard) commodity exports. This has been a major factor in driving the appreciation of the exchange rate (Figure 10 above). This exchange rate appreciation has not only made it difficult for South African manufactured exports (not just clothing and textiles, but also wooden furniture and other low-tech and labour-intensive products), but also for the export of manufactures

from regional economies such as Lesotho and Swaziland whose currencies are linked to the Rand, but who are not large exporters of commodities themselves.

Fourth, the clothing and furniture industries are widely recognised as being the stepping stone for industrial development. Our findings suggest that these first steps are being blocked by competition from the Asian Drivers in general, and China in particular. This being the case, the implication of our study is not so much about the present trajectory of SSA industrial development, but about its future trajectory. Unless it is believed that the Asian Driver economies will soon run into capacity constraints (perhaps labour) and be forced to raise their costs, or that their overall success will surface in significant upward realignments of their currencies, then it is difficult to see a future for SSA industrialisation in a global economy. It may be that changing terms of trade will mean that industrial development will be a relatively less attractive development option in the short- to medium-run (Kaplinsky, 2006), but this is a separate issue. Commodity-based sectors (particularly mineral-based commodities) have few linkages and provide little scope for positive external economies.

Fifthly, the welfare effect of importing cheaper clothing on the poor and working class of SSA cannot be discounted. If the South African case is to be taken seriously the greatest impact it would seem, from preliminary research, is on significantly reducing the unit prices of children's and infants clothing. Although, in the process this has had a deleterious impact on the clothing industry in these product items, the general welfare impact by allowing greater disposable income for household expenditure would seem to be have been large. Although unemployment in these sectors may have been increased by the impact of the Asian Drivers, essentially the social wage for the rest of the society is also significantly reduced.

Finally, in this paper we have considered in depth a single industry in a single continent. But our conclusions are not only relevant for other industries in SSA, but also for other regions in the world. There are compelling reasons to believe that the prospects facing large parts of Latin American and Caribbean industry are not dissimilar to those confronting SSA (Kaplinsky, 2005; Jenkins and Dusserl Peters, 2006). This being the case, we may yet again find ourselves in a familiar territory which questions the attractiveness of deepening globalisation for many economies.

REFERENCES

- Appelbaum, R. (2005), TNCs and the Removal of Textiles and Clothing Quotas, Geneva: UNCTAD.
- Business for Social Responsibility, and The World Bank (2005), Managing the Transition to a Responsible Global Textiles and Garment Industry: An Integrated Study of research by Accountability, Business for Social Responsibility; Washington: The World Bank and London: Institute of Social and Ethical Accountability.
- Economist Intelligence Unit, (2004), *“Africa consumer goods: Clothing Industry is Shrinking”*, The Economist, London.
- Egziabher, Tegegne Gebre (2006), “Asian Imports and Coping Strategies of Medium, Small and Micro Firms: The Case of Footwear Sector in Ethiopia”, mimeo, Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.
- Gereffi, G. (1999), “International Trade and Industrial Upgrading in the Apparel Commodity Chain”, Journal of International Economics, Vol. 48, No. 1, pp 37-70.
- Gereffi, G. and O. Memedovic (2003), The Global Apparel Value Chain: What Prospects for Upgrading by Developing Countries? Sectoral Studies Series, Vienna: UNIDO.
- Gibbon, P. (2003b). “The African Growth and Opportunity Act and the global commodity chain for clothing”, World Development, Vol.31 (11).
- Hiligas, A. (2004), The Elimination of Quotas Under the World Trade Organization Agreement on Textiles and Clothing: The Impact on Swaziland, Gaborone: USAID Regional Centre for Southern Africa.
- IDS Asian Drivers Team (2006), “The Impact of the Asian Drivers on the Developing World”, in R. Kaplinsky (ed.), Asian Drivers: Opportunity and Threat, Special Issue of IDS Bulletin, January.
- Ikiara M. M. and L. K Ndirangu (2003b), Prospects of Kenya’s Clothing Exports under AGOA after 2004, Discussion Paper 24, Nairobi: Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis.
- Jenkins, R. and C. Edwards (2005), The Effect of China and India’s growth and Trade Liberalisation on Poverty in Africa, Dept for International Development, DCP 70, London: DFID
- Jenkins, R. O. and E. Dusserl Peters (2006), “The Impact of China on Latin America”, Agenda-setting paper prepared for DFID, Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.
- Kaplinsky, R. (2005), Globalization, Poverty and Inequality: Between a Rock and a Hard Place, Cambridge: Policy Press.
- Kaplinsky, R. (2006 forthcoming), “Revisiting the terms of trade revisited: What difference will China make?”, World Development.
- Kaplinsky R. and M. Morris (2006), Dangling by a thread: Can SSA survive the Chinese scissors?, Report prepared for DFID, Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.
- Malone, S. (2002). “Who loses to China?” Women’s Wear Daily, 26 November.
- Manchester Trade Team (2005), “Impact of the End of MFA Quotas and COMESA’s Textile and Apparel Exports under AGOA: Can the Sub-Saharan Africa Textile and Apparel Industry Survive and Grow in the Post-MFA World?”, Report prepared for USAID East and Central Africa Global Competitiveness Trade Hub.
- Mattoo, A., D. Roy and A. Subramanian (2002) “The Africa Growth and Opportunities Act and Its Rules of Origin; Generosity Undermined?”, The World Bank;

- Development Research Group Trade Policy Research Working Paper No. 2908, Washington DC: The World Bank.
- McGrath, P. (2003). Testimony by the Chairperson of the Board of the United States Association of Importers of Textile and Apparel (USA ITA) before the United States International Trade Commission, Investigation 332-448, "Competitiveness of the Textile and Apparel Industries", 22 January.
- Morris M, J. Barnes and J. Esselaar (2006 forthcoming) 'Globalisation, the changed global dynamics of the clothing and textile value chains and the impact on Sub Saharan Africa' in Memedovic, O. (ed), Global Value Chains and Production Networks: Prospects for Upgrading by Developing Countries, UNIDO, Vienna
- Naumann E. (2005), Textiles and clothing: Reflections on the sector's integration into the post-quota environment , TRALAC Working Paper No 1/2005.
- Nordås, Hildegunn Kyvik (2004). "The global textile and clothing industry post the Agreement on Textiles and Clothing." Geneva: World Trade Organization. Mimeo.
- RPA Consulting (2004), Determining Lesotho's Knitted Fabric requirements: Preparing for the Post September 2007 AGOA Rules of Origin, Maseru: Lesotho National Development Corporation.
- Salm, A., W. J. Grant, T. J. Green, J. R. Haycock and J. Raimondo (2002), Lesotho Garment Industry Subsector Study for Government of Lesotho, mimeo.
- Spinanger, Dean and Samar Verma (2003). "The coming death of the ATC and China's WTO accession: Will push come to shove for Indian T&C exports?" Kiel: Kiel Institute for World Economics. Mimeo.
- Truong, Dinh Tuyen (2003). "The future of textiles and clothing trade after 2005." Address by Truong Dinh Tuyen, Trade Minister of Viet Nam, to the EU Directorate General on Trade. [trade- info.cec.eu.int/textiles/ documents/152.doc](http://trade-info.cec.eu.int/textiles/documents/152.doc)
- UNCTAD (2003), Handbook On The Scheme Of The United States Of America, UNCTAD: Geneva.
- USITC (2004), Textiles and Apparel: Assessment of the Competitiveness of Certain Foreign Suppliers to the U.S. Market, Investigation No. 332-448, USITC Publication 3671, Washington, United States International Trade Commission
- Williams, M., Yuk-Choi, K. and Yan, S. (2002) 'Bonanza or Mirage? Textiles and China's Accession to the WTO', Journal of World Trade, 36 (3): 577-591.
- Women's Wear Daily (WWD) (2003a). "U.N. study addresses quotas' end." 22 July. www.sweatshopwatch.org
- World Bank 2003. 'Kenya: A Policy Agenda to Restore Growth', Report No. 25840-KE. Washington DC: The World Bank (available on www.worldbank.org/ke/cg2003/CEM_CG.pdf).
- WTO (2005), International Trade Statistics, Geneva: World Trade Organisation